NINTH ANNUAL CONVENTION *of the*

Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland

HELD IN WASHINGTON, D. C., MARCH TENTH AND ELEVENTH, NINETEEN HUNDRED AND ELEVEN

PRICE TWENTY-FIVE CENTS

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OFFICERS AND COUNCIL, 1911-1912.

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SYNOPSIS OF PROCEEDINGS

PUBLIC LIBRARY

FRIDAY AFTERNOON

Discussion: "The Present Status of the Teaching of Economics in High Schools."

James Sullivan, Boys' High School, Brooklyn.

Address: "The Practical Management of a High School Course in Economics."

John L. Tildsley, De Witt Clinton High School, New York.

Discussion: Percy L. Kaye, Baltimore City College.
E. W. Wilson, Central High School, Washington, D. C.
J. M. Vincent, John Hopkins University.
A. E. McKinley, History Teachers' Magazine.

FRIDAY EVENING

Dinner at the Ebbitt House

Address: "Social History and the Industrial Revolution."

James T. Shotwell, Columbia University.

Discussion: J. Franklin Jameson, Carnegie Institution of Washington.
John L. Tildsley, De Witt Clinton High School, New York.
A. E. McKinley, History Teachers' Magazine.
James Sullivan, Boys' High School, Brooklyn.

SATURDAY MORNING

The Association met again at the Public Library.

Paper: "Historic Washington."

Mrs. Ellen Spencer Mussey, Dean of the Washington College of Law, Vice-President of the Board of Education, Washington, D. C.

The remainder of the morning was fittingly devoted to an automobile tour of Historic Washington, ending at the Library of Congress, where a buffet lunch was served.

SATURDAY AFTERNOON

Business Meeting: Reports and election of officers.

The proposal to amend Article IV. of the constitution was adopted.

Original Article: "The annual meetings of the Association shall be held on the second Friday and Saturday in March, at the place annually designated by the Council."

Article as amended: "The annual meetings of the Association shall be held at the time and place annually designated by the Council."

Appropriate resolutions were adopted extending the thanks of the Association to the Public Library of Washington, to the Library of Congress, to the Washington members and friends of the Association, and to the local committee on arrangements. A resolution was also adopted extending sympathy to the Secretary of the Association, who was prevented by illness from attending the meeting.

For the names of the officers and council elected, see page 3.

SOCIAL HISTORY AND THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

JAMES T. SHOTWELL

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The Industrial Revolution is, as I hope to show, the greatest single event in the world's history. Yet there is only one general history textbook in use in our schools, as far as I know, which devotes so much as a separate chapter to it, and that book is not more than two years old. This is a strange state of affairs, and worth looking into. The explanation, however, is easy. Such events as this lie outside the scope of "history" as it has been studied, written and taught since the science of modern history began. Political history has been neglecting all but what has borne the name of politics. It has left out of account what lies behind and beneath; and that is where the larger and dominating forces in society reside. Now these forces are demanding recognition, and the historian must meet the demand. Let it be admitted at once that, in advocating the study of these neglected phenomena, we take a new standpoint for our object as a whole. I know perfectly well what hardships this involves in the history classroom, and agree that, in view of the difficulties which this adds to an already difficult subject, we should not make changes in our perspectives unless we have to. But whether we have to or not does not depend upon ourselves. If social history is legitimate and events like the Industrial Revolution ought to be taught, no conspiracy of silence will be of any avail. We may continue to ignore realities, but the result is that the realities will soon ignore us in return. If the impression gets abroad that we are trifling with the intellectual demands of our age, spending time over the legends of the kings of Rome which is denied to the events which have determined our civilization, there will be still fewer hours devoted to history in our school curricula. That would be well enough if the other subjects could

take the place of history in its own field. But so far their invasions have left much to be desired. Social history requires even more than any other the training and discipline of a historian. Its very complexity involves the highest kind of scientific criticism—that infinite patience in the control of elusive data, which is the historian's especial contribution to the inductive study of the past.

It is mainly because the historian has left this field to others, especially to the economist, that the Industrial Revolution is so recent a discovery. Our debt to the economist is that he has helped us to see it as a historical event. But when we look over the manner of his treatment of it, we feel that there is still distinct room for one whose interests are not in things, but in the event itself. It was Arnold Toynbee whose "Lectures on the Industrial Revolution," published posthumously in 1884, first brought the name and the conception prominently forward. His survey was largely historical and remains a most helpful manual, but it was only a slight introduction. An interesting example of the attitude of an economist's history is the treatment of the event by William Cunningham in his monumental "Growth of English Industry and Commerce" (fifth edition, 1910). He gave no section to the Industrial Revolution, but allowed it to fall partly into two divisions based on economic theory—"Parliamentary Colbertism" and "Laissez Faire."* Such things are indicative of the way history is conceived and written when the main interest is in the doctrines instead of in the facts.

Traditional divisions of scientific fields are as hard to get rid of as the boundaries on a map. The seven liberal arts are still with us, although now they are twenty-eight or forty-nine. Such divisions are often, to be sure, the necessary condition for our specialist work, the only way we can possibly handle the ever growing mass of fact which fronts scientific inquiry. But it is one thing to sanction the specialist's method of work, and another thing to regard him as the sole owner of the phenomena with which he works. For an event always has more than one bearing. Economic facts do not exist simply as data for laws of consumption or for theories of value. They are also things of effect, phenomena of will, belief, hope and fear. There

* The "Cambridge Press" has met the situation by a singular device. It republished parts from two separate volumes, grouped together, with the old pagination and entitled "The Industrial Revolution" (1908). The bewildered reader starts in the middle of page 403 in the midst of "Colbertism."

is the strain and passion of humanity in them. They, as well as battles, courts or parliaments, mark the stages of the progress and the major facts of the history of our civilization. In short the things of economics may also be the things of philosophy, of psychology, of art, of science and of history. For the environment of life is not divided into exclusive compartments. No one fact exists simply by itself. It exists in its relations to a whole which is indefinitely complex and inseparable. Our specialists who deal with one thing at a time and ignore its neighbors are dealing with abstractions which have never existed outside their own minds. History has generally been conceived by historians in too narrow terms. Although Freeman's old motto: "History is past politics and politics present history," has disappeared, I believe, from the history seminar rooms of one of our great universities, where it used to stand, it might yet be written across the title page of most of our manuals, and I imagine that it comprises the vision of the majority of our teachers.

But what is politics? To the men of Freeman's era politics has meant national politics, and particularly constitutional development. Why? Because that was the dominant interest of the men for whom Freeman and his fellows worked. It was the era of the triumph of the national state. It witnessed the advent to power of the great middle class, and they sought in history the reflection of their efforts and achievements. But once politics had to do with other things—with the ties of blood and religion as in early Rome, with the erection of stockades to keep out Vikings or one's neighbors, with stealing land when the owner was in a crusade, with planting colonies or revenging murdered missionaries. Nowadays politics deals mainly with the tariffs and trusts, with factory legislation and social welfare. History, in reality, is bound to follow these changing interests of mankind. It deals with the things which interest the people by and for whom it is written, and if any of us decide to cling to Freeman's definition, out of affectionate regard for the things of our youth, we can only do so by interpreting "politics" the way the theologians do the creeds, extending the meaning to cover anything we mean!

Personally, I do not accept Freeman's definition, and do not care to keep it alive by tender ministrations. But an illustration of the changeful nature of politics lies right to hand in the subject be-

fore me. The politics of Europe from the fifth to the fifteenth centuries had commonly to do with land-grabbing. It was concerned with territorial readjustments usually involving war. Now territorial politics is relatively simple. In its primitive form, where there is almost no money, the sovereign paid his officials in estates, and maintained his court largely by going around visiting, in order to consume the revenue on the spot. It was not until the middle of the thirteenth century that Paris really became the settled capital of France, when the lawyers were permanently installed there; for until the thirteenth century there was not enough "money economy" for politics to develop questions beyond those of a sort of enlarged ownership. It is no mere coincidence that that same medieval renaissance of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries should see England, France, Aragon, and even the unwieldy Empire, developing courts of law, establishing police and embarking on the new experiment of parliaments.

When money became a social factor, and apples, so to speak, could be transported in the form of silver from Devon to Languedoc; when a workshop in a back street in Ghent could equal in value the broad acres of Champagne, politics became something new. The first university came into existence at Bologna to learn of Roman law how to handle property which was not in land, and the lawyers trained in the new science speedily became the counsellor of kings. Then we have the emancipation of serfs—a transference of their servitude from a land to a money basis,—and their tragic uprisings to share more largely in the new wealth created by industry and stimulated by commerce—a chapter of history which has yet to be written. Meanwhile, the cities are growing in Italy and along the Rhine, in Flanders and Brabant, and they form an order of society by themselves. The old landed nobility may continue to despise and wage war upon them, but the towns survive defeat to be a larger and larger factor in the affairs of Europe. Finally this new "money politics"—which is at the base of English self-government in the House of Commons—was the thing which overthrew the greatest monarchy in the Middle Ages, the Papal monarchy as organized by Innocent III. It was over a question of money that Boniface VIII. lost the battle to the King of France. It was also mostly a question of money which brought the revolt of Luther

—how much else it was is not for us to discuss here. At any rate it was the Augsburg banking firm of the Fuggers who made possible the imperial dreams of Charles V.; just as it was largely the organization of English credit, and the establishment of the Bank of England, which enabled that little country to triumph over the land power of Louis XIV. and so prepare the way for the world empire of Great Britain.

This brings to my mind a lecture which a friend of mine had to give on Lord Chatham. He had nothing to say that had not been said too many times before, but in his hunt for other things to talk about, which might by some play of a vigorous imagination be associated with the work of the great Commoner, he struck on the idea that if one should get off land politics and take up the origin of England's present power where they really belong, on the high seas, one might see Chatham in a new light. So he started on the sea-wall of Venice. Venice is ruined by Portugal—all because of sea freight. Portugal is superseded by Holland, Holland by England, which has already plundered Spanish galleons, and then England and France have to fight it out in that long series of wars which culminated in the English triumph in 1763. That is a better perspective, it seems to me, than to confine one's attention to Whigs and Tories. An economic interest, inadequately expressed in politics, it is true, had after all apparently dominated the policy of the country, in spite of rotten boroughs and corruption.

So, to get back to Freeman, one who looks below the surface sees that politics is not by any means an unchanging subject, obeying, like music or sculpture or painting, certain fixed rules. It is always a study of the structure of society to be sure, but you cannot understand the structure of an organism unless you know its composition. You may be able to describe its outline, but you cannot tell what strength it has to stand strains and blows, what real vitality it has, how much it belongs where you find it. The description of the framework is a mere literary exercise; science demands a knowledge of how the thing itself is put together—what forces hold it in place and what pressure it has to meet. It is impossible to separate form from content in the study of the structure of society, just as it is in the case of the individual. Moreover, the institutions and rigid traditions which form the skeleton of society may dis-

appear in a way undreamed of in our anatomy, and the science that deals with this process in transformation must deal with the process of its transformation.

It is in such a setting as this that one comes upon the Industrial Revolution, for it was a direct result of the great Commercial Revolution which preceded it; the era of Pitt brought inevitably that of Watt. The commerce of England, its increased available capital and its access to the world's markets were the main factors in the stimulation of industry which produced the machine and the factory.

By the "Industrial Revolution" I mean that change in the world's work which resulted from the introduction of machinery. It began in England in the middle of the eighteenth century, and, although in a way, we are still in the heart of it, yet it had already shown its character and role in a complete social transformation by the middle of the nineteenth, at least in those parts of England where it was operative.

We shall see the significance of it best by contrasting the world since with the world before. The old Régime, as we may term the age of domestic or rather hand industry, was characterized by the isolation and independence of its local groups, cut in upon only by a commerce in the things they could not produce. Thus isolated and self-sufficing, the basis of society remained rural, in spite of the growth of coin and its galvanic action upon trade. Remaining rural it was stationary. Aristotle himself would have been quite at home in the economy of George Washington's estate. It was practically self-sufficing, with blacksmiths, spinners and weavers, carpenters, husbandmen, etc. It was not in touch with the daily markets filled with the produce of the East and West as it would be to-day. The best illustration of such isolated economy, that I recall, is George Eliot's picture of the village in rural England where Silas Marner worked as a weaver.

The village of Raveloe "lay in the rich central plain of what we are pleased to call Merry England. It was nestled in a snug well-wooded hollow, quite an hour's journey on horseback from any turnpike, where it was never reached by the vibrations of the coach-horn or of public opinion." * * * "A low wooded region where one felt hidden even from the heavens by the screening trees and

hedgerows, * * * orchards looking lazy with neglected plenty; the large church in the wide churchyard, which men gazed at lounging at their own doors in service-time; the purple faced farmers jogging along the lanes or turning in at the Rainbow; homesteads, where men supped heavily and slept in the light of the evening hearth; and where women seemed to be laying up a stock of linen for the life to come." Its isolation was complete. "Superstition clung easily round every person or thing that was at all unwonted, or even intermittent or occasional merely, like the visits of the pedlar or the knife grinder. No one knew where wandering men had their homes; and how was a man to be explained unless you at least knew somebody who knew his father and mother? To the peasants of the old times, the world outside of their own direct experience was a region of vagueness and mystery; to their untraveled thought a state of wandering was a conception as dim as the winter life of the swallows that came back with the spring." And so the shepherd dogs would bark at the weavers—weird figures bending under their bags of linen—as they "appeared on the upland, dark against the sunset," and the shepherds shared the dogs' appreciation of the uncanny.

That was in the old Régime. What has the Industrial Revolution done to Raveloe? I imagine that along those hills there are no longer sheepfolds and hedgerows, but huge mills, row after row of them, blackening the sky with smoke and filling the air with the ceaseless hum and jar of their machinery. There are thousands of children and women who live in the squalid streets where the orchards used to be. The morning express from London dashes into the valley with the newspapers for the Rainbow Inn, where men discuss now the harvests of Alberta and the flocks of Argentine. That newspaper itself is a marvel of the new era, for during the night the wires have been busy from all over the world, sending news to London, and words pass more quickly from Berlin or Constantinople to the editor's desk than Dr. Johnson could have gone with the gossip of Westminster to his home in Fleet Street. Then the great presses are set going, presses that in a single frame can turn out 280 printed miles of news an hour! By such devices the barriers around Raveloe have been burst and the insistent problems of a new democracy forced on the grandsons of the farmers

of Merry England. The town is part and parcel of that great organism we call the world of business. Its mills close down when the boll weevil destroys the cotton in Louisiana, but the ghost of Silas Marner may see their windows glowing all night long if the markets of India are calling for their wares. Indeed, you and I are a part of Raveloe, for every spool of thread we buy may set going the machinery by which the women and children get their living.

I could go on with this illustration with much more refinement of detail. But the point I want to make is that this is no mere creation of fancy; it is real and true. It is what has happened in the cities of that great "black country" against whose coming Ruskin wrote so eloquently but so fruitlessly. It was the mill that drew the population of England from the South and West and planted them in the North and East in the early nineteenth century. It was the mill that caused the Reform Bill. More than that, the mill and machinery not only made possible the overthrow of Napoleon, but they are the chief source of Britain's greatness to-day.

These are large statements and they need some proof. Proof is not difficult, but I have only space to indicate the manner in which it can be reached. In what does this revolution consist? It lies in the introduction of machinery. Now a machine differs from a tool in that while a tool helps a man to do his work, the machine does the work itself, and therefore the amount of work it does depends on itself and not on the man who stands beside it—although he may be a factor, like the quality of wool, the strength of the wheels, the capacity of the engine. Take a definite example. Spinning is first done with distaff and spindle, the fingers pulling and twisting the fibres. One may still see the old women at it in Italian towns. Take the amount of yarn spun by the hand in this way in one day as a unit, and see what the machine has done. A spinning wheel will spin say eight times as much, that is, there were several hand spinners in the wheel of our New England grandmothers. A spinning frame is just a number of spinning wheels side by side and run by a single motor. But each one may have hundreds of spindles, revolving hundreds of times faster than any hand could ever turn them. Now keep in mind that original hand spinner, with distaff and spindle. In a single frame in our factories, there is,

embodied in iron and steel, from a thousand to fifty thousand or more Italian spinning women. They use up in a year almost 10,000,000,000 pounds of cotton. Through the tireless, restless iron fingers of these spinning frames of ours passes yearly enough thread to bind together the solar system; and only two centuries ago every inch of it would have had to be twisted by the fingers or walked by the aching feet of our great-grandmothers and grandmothers!

But this is not all. For those iron frames stand for real human beings. It is no figure of speech, but sober truth, to say that in the mills of the textile industries there has come into existence as a result of the Industrial Revolution, a non-human working population far surpassing the total human population of the whole earth. No one knows how great it is; but some preliminary calculations convince me that it is considerably over 50,000,000,000. That is, had there been no introduction of machinery it would take that many men and women to do the work now done by it. Note that the work *is* actually done. We are not talking of abstractions or dealing in dreams. In the textile industries, only about 1,000,000 work, official wage earners and all, direct this colossal ally, which has taken over the manufacture of the stuff we wear. But they do not spin or weave any longer. Their business is to drive the machine, to keep it at work, to mend the threads and fill the bobbins. They are overseers over gangs of iron slaves, and their duty is not to work with them but to make them work.

This is an illustration of merely one phase of the Industrial Revolution. It has brought into existence a vast working population, embodied in iron and steel, drawn from mines and forests, from steam, gas and electricity by the mysterious genius of the human brain. It has transformed the face of nature and the life of the whole world. These are not mere economic facts. They form the largest and most wonderful chapter in the history of mankind. What is the Renaissance or Reformation, the empire of Charlemagne or of Caesar, compared with this empire of mind and industry, which has penetrated the whole world, planting its cities, as it goes, binding the whole together by railroad and telegraph, until the thing we call civilization has drawn the isolated Raveloes of the old Régime into a great world-organism, with its afferent and efferent nerves of news and capital reaching to its finger-tips in the

markets of the frontier. A nickel spent for thread in Uganda sets the spindles going in Manchester. Fellaheen by the Nile may be starving because the cigarette factories are building marble palaces for their owners on the banks of the Hudson.

This is not mere rhetoric—that rival to history even in Thucydides' day. It is on the contrary the very stuff of history. If history is only a museum for the dead things of the past, I have little interest in it. But it is, as well, the laboratory where may be studied those phenomena which Time cannot destroy, the forces which find immortality in change, which express themselves in the life of nations or of society at large. It is true that such dynamic forces often elude the analysis they invite, because they are veiled in other things; religion, humanism and the scientific spirit are historic forces, but they come to the historian only through, and in the guise of, their creations. But the Industrial Revolution is one of these creations, as well as the elusive creator. It is the application of the scientific spirit to the material world, the rationalizing of our environment, making metal and fire take up and continue the thought and labor of the inventor.

But grant that it is history, what can be done with it by teachers of a subject that already baffles teaching by the weight of its details? The only way to handle it in our schools is, of course, to leave out many things now taught, and they will not be left out so long as the examination papers call for them. This is a problem which is now being faced very frankly by those who are considering the program of history in schools, and I expect to see the Industrial Revolution looming large on the examination papers of the future.

There is one further objection to this introduction of economic history, which is advanced by historians of the first rank. They are jealous of the scientific accuracy which has been attained by historic students during the last quarter of a century. They point out that one may know exactly how, when and where the battle of Waterloo was fought or the fourteenth amendment passed. But you cannot know, in the same way, exactly what rôle the economic factors have been playing in any time or place. There is much force in this. I share the skepticism which refuses to accept an unmeasured economic force as the cause of an event. I do not know, for instance, exactly what brought about the fall of Napoleon. But I am tolerably sure

that he was not defeated at Waterloo so decisively as he was at Manchester and Birmingham. Robert Owen already estimated that machinery in British mills by the end of the Napoleonic wars equalled more than one thousand million working men! Now, frankly, when we face such facts are we quite sure where and how Napoleon, the emperor of hand-workers and farmers, was defeated?

It is true that this is not a topic hoary with age and filled with the romance of those

> Old forgotten far-off things
> And battles long ago.

But no epic ever recorded such triumphs, no tragedy such suffering as these triumphs cost. The story of the women and children of England who bought her world empire at the loom and in the mine, of starving mobs of Paris who died fighting for $1.50 a week in 1848, these are things which must go into our histories along with the growth of democracy and the spread of higher social ethics. If Dante were to come to life again to-day, these things, and not merely the diplomacy of Metternich or the intrigues of St. Petersburg would be the theme of his *Divine Comedy*. And Herodotus, the father of us all, would be investigating how things like railroads could make possible a single nation on this continent. With such things, or their counterparts, did he busy himself in the old days when history was young. The fact that they are in the recent past is no argument either for or against them—certainly not against. For no one would have laughed more than this same Herodotus at the claim of those who say that one cannot write the history of one's own times and of the immediate past.

Now, why is it that the Industrial Revolution has not been recognized as it should have been? Why is it that a hundred years passed before it was seen in its full significance? Partly because the medieval habit of mind is strongly with us. People were told to look for other things, and they did so; history was in the hands of men trained in the classics, or dominated by the idea of national politics. The history of work was beneath their notice. Besides they knew little or nothing of it or the workers. Moreover, it is the hardest thing in the world to develop that sense of wonder in the common things of life, which, as Plato said, is the beginning

of philosophy. How many of us in New York have ever thought, for instance, of the historic setting of a subway train? And yet that is as significant a factor in our civilization as the newspapers, theatres or colleges along its route, or the election which takes place once a year in the street above. In that chasm in the rock of Manhattan Island, more electric horse-power flashes along the rails than all the cavalry of Tamurlaine. Go down to the cathedral-like power-house—also a historic spot—and see this power loosened from the coals of Pennsylvania, a process which links our era with the geologic ages. It is in haunts like this, I think, that Aristotle would be found to-day, rather than speculating on the history and prospects of the Democratic or Republican party.

This sense of wonder is hard to acquire, and harder still to keep. And, indeed, in this connection the Industrial Revolution itself is mainly to blame for the neglect it has suffered. For it has induced a dynamic habit of mind. We expect change; it is the natural thing. By strange inversion, the marvelous has become the normal, and the new is taken for granted. But whoever does acquire that philosophic vision of the sense of wonder finds nobler and more human contact with the realities of life. And to him, History, the reflection in the past of his comprehension of the present, includes all those things which he can distinguish in the tumultuous currents of that river of oblivion we call Time.

DISCUSSION

J. Franklin Jameson, Carnegie Institution of Washington:

Mr. Jameson declared his admiration for Professor Shotwell's address and his agreement with the opinion that it was desirable to lay much more emphasis than had ever hitherto been laid upon the economic aspects of modern history. He held it indeed necessary to do this if history were to correspond with the actual course of the development of modern society. But if we take up the practical question, what are teachers of history to do in the face of enlightening convictions such as those which the speaker had presented, it would practically prove impossible for the teacher to go so far as he might wish in the teaching of economic history, without stepping off from the solid ground of that which is known to be true. Economic history must, like other history, be based on solid and sufficient documentary materials critically digested. Now the state of the materials for economic history is at present one of incomparably less completely advanced preparation than that of the materials for constitutional and political history. The judicious teacher who confines himself to the old staples of political and constitutional history can advance on secure ground, even in many broad and sweeping statements. In economic history he cannot make such broad and sweeping statements, covering large matters in short form, after the manner necessary in school teaching, without pronouncing rashly on many questions for the answering of which no proper foundation has yet been laid. Therefore, in spite of his belief that he should make much more of economic history if it were possible, he does well at present to proceed cautiously and to introduce the new ingredients in much less proportion than he would do if they had yet been thoroughly tested.

James Sullivan, Boys' High School, Brooklyn:

With reference to Professor Jameson's point that the political side of history has always been kept uppermost by historians because it presents something definite and offers a field so vast that its possibilities are inexhaustible, I should like to make the point that the conclusions of our historians in the political field of history are just as likely to be upset as are those made by our scholars in the social and economic fields, and that did our political historians give up their hunt for unimportant minutiæ they would have more time to devote to the much more important social side.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF THE TEACHING OF ECONOMICS IN HIGH SCHOOLS

E. S. Meade

Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania*

It is my purpose in this paper to present the results of an investigation into the Commercial High Schools of the United States, which has been in progress during the last four months.

The first step in this investigation was to address the following letter to the superintendents of 130 high schools in the leading cities of each state:

"Dear Sir—I am endeavoring to secure information concerning recent developments in commercial high schools throughout the country and shall be very much indebted to you if you will ask the principal of your high school to forward me a complete curriculum of the courses taught, together with a list of the textbooks used in the various courses, and some brief idea, if this will not be putting you to too much trouble, of the method of instruction employed, especially as to the amount of outside observation required of the students."

Out of the replies to this letter 50 contained descriptions of the courses in the commercial high schools, or commercial departments of high schools, with textbooks, and in some cases, a brief comment on the methods of work employed. The so-called commercial subjects taught in these high schools are as follows, in the order of their importance:

Bookkeeping	59
Commercial Arithmetic	59
Stenography and Typewriting	57

* Professor Meade was unable to attend the meeting and his paper did not reach Washington in time to be read. His place on the program was taken by Dr. James Sullivan.

Commercial Law	47
English	45
Commercial Geography	43
Penmanship	38
History and Civics	31
Physics or Chemistry	31
Manual Training	24
Business Forms and Practice	22
German	19
History of Commerce	17
Spelling	15
Economics	14
Physical Geography	12
American and Current History	11
French	9
Money and Banking	9
Business English	8
Political Economy	6
Accounting	6
English History	6
Industrial History	5
Advertising	2
Etymology	2
Biology	1
Transportation	1
Spanish	..

The courses which are practically universal are Bookkeeping, Commercial Arithmetic, English, Penmanship and Spelling, Stenography and Typewriting, Commercial Law and Commercial Geography. It is only in the larger schools and in a comparatively small number of these, that the attempt is made to include such subjects as Economics, Banking, History of Commerce, etc. A good example of the second type is furnished by the curriculum of the Cleveland High School of Commerce, which is as follows:

English.
Modern Languages.
Mathematics.

Bookkeeping.
Advanced Work in Banking, Finance, Business Organization, Transportation, etc.
Shorthand and Typewriting.
Penmanship.
Commercial Geography.
History of Commerce.
American History, Civics and Municipal Activities.
Advanced Work in Political Economy and Commercial Law.
Chemistry.
Physics.
Applied Arts.
Department of Physical Training and Hygiene.

The methods employed in these courses were found to correspond with the ordinary methods of high school work. The courses are based upon and follow closely the standard textbooks, and the work which the student does is largely confined to the problems, exercises and assigned reading indicated in these texts.

In a few cases only was outside observation of industries, business establishments, banks, etc., included as a part of the course. There was no indication in the correspondence that such outside work was regarded as of great importance.

A second questionnaire was sent out to all those who had given satisfactory replies to the first letter. These questions relate to the preparation of male students. Complete answers were received from the principals of thirty commercial high schools located in all parts of the country, and, I believe, giving a fair average of opinion and practice in the field. I can best present their conclusions by taking up the most important of these questions, in order, and grouping the answers.

1. Is the object and result of the training which you give, to prepare the student for business positions, *e. g.*, bookkeeper in a wholesale establishment, or assistant cost-clerk in a factory?

Most of the high schools state that they give the boy a general commercial training. For example, the principal of the Milwaukee Public High School says: "The object of the commercial courses in our high schools is general rather than specific; we fit students so that they may take positions either as bookkeeper, general clerical

assistant, or stenographer (amanuensis)"; and the superintendent of the Burlington, Iowa, school says: "The object and result of the training in our high school commercial course is to give the student a knowledge of the principles of bookkeeping. He is not a specialist in this subject when he leaves high school, but we aim to give him the training necessary to enable him to adapt himself to a position in an office where an ordinary knowledge of bookkeeping is required."

A number of the replies, where the commercial course includes only two years, suggest that the training which can be given in this time is inadequate to thoroughly prepare boys, even for subordinate positions. In cases where the course includes three or four years this preparation is regarded as thorough as can be given outside of the particular employment into which the student enters.

Question 2. Is it your intention to do no more than give a thorough grounding in the principles underlying accounting and business practice, leaving to the employer the task of developing the desired facility in the operation of his particular business?

In so far as this question was clearly understood it was answered in the affirmative. It is generally recognized that every business is distinct, and that while a considerable amount of facility in the performance of business functions can be imparted in school, the employer must give the specific training which will fit the boy into the duties of a particular position in a particular office. The graduate of the commercial high school is valuable to his employer because of the ease with which he assimilates his instructions, his ability to comprehend the relation of his employment to the general work of the concern, and his ability to add to his work the duties of other employments, should occasion require.

Question 3. Does your department compete with the so-called "Business College?"

Before an audience of high school teachers it may not be amiss to state some of the answers to this question without, of course, giving names: "Our school does not compete with so-called business colleges. We do work which such schools do, but we attempt to do it in a much more thorough manner, and the frequent favorable comments from business men justify the statement that our product is better."

Another superintendent writes: "We do not attempt to compete with so-called business colleges. They teach a little penmanship, some bookkeeping, considerable typewriting and stenography, and some spelling. They are in every sense vocational schools. On the other hand we aim to train or educate."

Another superintendent writes: "Our department does not compete with the so-called business colleges with their short whirlwind courses."

The implication of all the answers to this question is that the commercial high school teaches the student the reason for what he does and trains him in habits of inquiry and co-ordination. The result of such training is that he can, as before stated, quickly fit himself into the duties of any position which it is within his power to fill. The business college, on the other hand, is believed to give a superficial mechanical training in the performance of certain manipulations of figures without much comprehension, on the part of the student, of the meaning of what he is doing. Some of the replies frankly discuss the question of competition and point out that they are drawing largely from the business colleges for their staff. From my own observations I am inclined to the opinion that a general extension of the commercial work throughout the public schools would mean the passing of the business college. These institutions have done a useful work but their work is superficial and hurried. When the time comes for them to depart they will not be seriously regretted.

Question 4. Does it aim to give the young man who completes the course a comprehension of the institutions and methods with which he is to come in contact, and the places and relations to those institutions in the general business world, rather than to give him specific preparation for a definite position?

This question is a repetition of Question 2, and was intended to bring out an answer from those who did not clearly understand what was desired in the first question. It is not necessary, therefore, to speak of the answers in detail.

Question 5. Is it your object to prepare employees or employers, superintendents, etc.? This question is asked with a full understanding of the necessity of apprenticeship as a preparation for positions of responsibility. I believe, however, that a course of study can be devised for high schools whose purpose shall be to

awaken ambition for business success, and prepare for the positions of responsibility, a course, at least in the junior and senior years, which shall approximate the first two years of the courses offered by "Schools of Commerce" in American universities. I enclose the description of such a group of courses, offered in the Evening School of Accounts and Finance of the University of Pennsylvania, to young men who are prevented by circumstances from enrolling in the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce. I shall be much interested to have your opinion upon the practicability of offering such courses which are also generally given in Y. M. C. A. classes, to commercial high school students.

By most of the high school principals the answers to these two questions here indicated are first, that it is their object to prepare employees and not employers, the thought being that the boy, on leaving the high school, was not sufficiently mature to even consider the question of occupying a responsible position, and also that the best preparation for responsibility is fidelity and efficiency in subordinate positions. As to the practicability of offering courses in Advanced Accounting, Money and Banking, Advanced Commercial Law, Corporation Finance, Business Organization, etc., courses similar to those given in the university schools of commerce, the answer was generally in the negative. A large majority of the principals believe that the high school student is not sufficiently mature to take up such courses to advantage. In some cases, however, the principal comprehended the full measure of his opportunity. For example, the head of the commercial course in the Woodward High School of Cincinnati, Ohio, says: "It is our most earnest endeavor to inspire in the minds of these boys a desire to be more than mere machines doing mechanical work as an employee, but rather, eventually employers, heads of departments, superintendents, etc." The current view, with which the one just mentioned is by no means inconsistent, is stated as follows: "One thing we do not do and that is to fit for the position of anything except employee. And I believe right there is the keynote of the whole situation. High schools cannot fit for anything else successfully. The universities ought to. High school students are not, as a rule, over eighteen years of age when they graduate. When the young man starts out to earn his living he does not start as a superintendent.

In my opinion, he will become an employer a good deal more quickly and will be more successful if he first learns how to be successful as an employee." There seems to be no reason, in my opinion, why thorough training should not be given to high school students as this last answer indicates, while, at the same time, they might be shown the advantage which such equipment will give them in preparation for higher positions and might be inspired with the desire to achieve substantial success. As a matter of fact I believe that the effort is made in most commercial high schools to encourage their graduates to anticipate something more than a comfortable living as the result of their work.

Question 6. Would you consider it practicable to offer continuation courses in these subjects, of university grade, in evening classes, to graduates of the commercial course, so that the equivalent of a university course could eventually be obtained?

In most cases this question was answered in the affirmative. The idea of these continuation courses in technical lines is familiar from European experience, which has been duplicated to a limited extent in this country. There is no reason to doubt that continuation courses in commercial subjects, similar to those which have been successfully given for a number of years in such institutions as the Evening School of Accounts and Finance of the University of Pennsylvania, and the New York University School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance, could be offered in high schools of every city of 50,000 inhabitants. No costly equipment is required to give such work; reference books and other material are not expensive; and all that would be necessary to offer such work is to employ teachers who have had training in university schools of commerce and who are capable of duplicating their courses in continuation schools. The value of advanced training in business subjects, as given in the evening department of the large universities, has been abundantly demonstrated by the success of those who have completed these courses. They enable young men whose circumstances prevent them from taking the university course to gain a fair substitute for the training which the university offers and to compete on much more favorable terms than the untrained man with the university graduate. I am strongly of the opinion that these continuation schools, both in business subjects and in technical subjects, or-

ganized along university lines, will at no distant date be installed in the public school buildings of every city. The benefit which will be derived by the nation from broadening the scope of university training will be great.

Questions 7 and 8 relate to that which has preceded.

Question 7. Are you able, without difficulty, to obtain satisfactory teachers for commercial branches?

Question 8. Are your teachers college trained men?

The answer to the first of these questions was, with few exceptions, in the negative. The second question was generally answered in the affirmative. That is to say, a large percentage of the teachers in commercial high schools—I should say more than half of those from which I have received information—are college trained, and yet there is difficulty in obtaining satisfactory teachers to fill these positions. It is my opinion that the fault lies with the character of training which these teachers have had in college. It is certain that the ordinary college course in Greek, Latin, Mathematics, etc., or even the college course which includes a large amount of history and natural science is not the kind of preparation which is required by those who would train young men for positions in business. What is wanted is to fix the salaries for this work upon such a level as to enable the high schools to compete with a business career for the services of men trained in university schools of commerce. Men who are thoroughly versed in these business subjects will be able to make their work of much greater value than it is at present.

How far the high schools are at present from establishing this level of salaries is seen from the following table of salaries paid to commercial high school teachers:

$750	to $1,300	1	
800	to 1,300	3	
900	to 3,000	1	New York
1,000	to 1,200	5	
1,000	to 1,500	1	
1,000	to 1,800	2	
1,100	to 1,350	1	
1,100	to 1,500	1	
1,200	to 1,500	5	
1,200	to 1,800	1	

1,440 to 1,620	1
1,600	1
1,700	1
2,000	1

Note—Only 25 out of the 30 gave this information.

Question 9. What salaries are paid male teachers in the commercial department? My purpose in asking these questions is to discover, with a view to making the facts known, what, if any, opportunity lies open to university graduates in the commercial high school field?

These salaries are far below those which should be paid to attract the kind of ability which is necessary in this work. Until the people are willing to recognize that the public school is far more important to the welfare of the nation that the university and that public school teachers of whatever grade should be paid at least as high salaries as those which prevail in colleges and universities, any extension of high school work into these untried fields will be slow, difficult, and unsatisfactory.

Question 10. What is the attitude of your boys toward the commercial courses?

Question 11. How does the enrollment in this department compare with the enrollment in the scientific or classical courses?

Question 12. If modern languages are included in the commercial courses, for what reason, practical, disciplinary or cultural? and how are those studies regarded by the student as compared, for example, with bookkeeping or commercial geography?

The first of these questions was unanimously answered in the affirmative. The commercial courses are exceedingly attractive to the average boy. He is able at a very early age to understand the significance of business, in fact the desire to succeed in business is his strongest incentive to continue his education beyond the grammar school. The testimony is general and enthusiastic as to the interest and energy which is displayed by the students in these commercial courses. Although recently established, the enrollment is everywhere large and is rapidly increasing. It compares favorably with, and in many cases, is outstripping the enrollment of technical courses of manual training high schools. The question relating to modern

languages, was asked because of the curious revival in some of these schools of French, German or Spanish. The old cultural idea dies hard, and its last vestiges are seen in the modern language courses in the commercial high schools. In a few cases the principals contended that the modern languages had some practical value. Of course, this is a mistaken notion. One principal, in conversation with me, upon the subject, states with much satisfaction that two of his graduates were using Spanish in positions on the Pacific Coast. He admitted, however, that aside from these two he knew of no other. Most of the apologists for the modern languages in the commercial courses advocated them on account of their cultural value. With few exceptions, however, it was admitted that the study of modern languages was exceedingly distasteful to boys in commercial high schools who would far rather employ their time about studies whose human use was apparent. Where these courses are elective, they are scantily attended and where they are required, the attitude of the majority of the students is hostile or inattentive. In this I may state that the students' views are far stronger than their preceptors'.

Question 13. Are your graduates in demand?

This, after all, is the test of the value of the commercial course. The responses to this question are most gratifying. The principal of the Springfield (Massachusetts) Commercial High School says: "Our graduates are in demand, as stated in my answer to Question 1. Ninety-five per cent. of our graduates are actually employed, and every year we could place two or three times as many men as we graduate."

One of the New York superintendents says: "All our graduates are in demand; all have positions by the time they graduate."

An Omaha (Nebraska) principal says: "Our graduates are in demand and have no trouble in getting a position."

In Columbia (Ohio): "Demand exceeds the supply."

From Paterson, New Jersey: "Our commercial department graduates have no difficulty in finding good positions in Paterson and in New York City."

From Harrisburg, Pa.: "We cannot supply the demand."

From Sioux Falls, S. D.: "Our graduates are in demand and we have never been able to meet the demand."

ABSTRACT OF DR. SULLIVAN'S ADDRESS

Owing to the absence of Professor Meade and to the failure of his paper, which he had sent, to arrive in time for reading, Dr. Sullivan summarized an article on "Economics" which he himself had recently written for the "Cyclopedia of Education." He brought out the fact that since the very exhaustive study of the subject by Professor Clow, published in the "Economic Studies" of the American Economic Association (1899) under the title of "Economics as a School Study," there had been practically no advance in the study in the schools. The state of its study, with but few exceptions, was still the same as Professor Clow had found it: that is, in the schools of the Middle West there were a great many more students studying the subject in the high schools than in the East.

This, Dr. Sullivan accounted for, by the fact that in the West the students were more generally admitted to colleges on the certificate plan, whereas in the East their admission was usually by examination. As economics had not been generally made an admission subject, the students in the secondary schools were few in number. At Harvard, where it was accepted for admission, the results were found to be unsatisfactory, especially for students from Eastern schools. Another cause for the failure of the study to be as widely adopted as it should be was found in the attitude of the professors in the colleges, many of whom felt that it was too difficult for high school students. Perhaps for this reason the American Economic Association had never done any work in its behalf. That the subject, however, could be successfully and well taught in the high schools had been shown conclusively. All that was needed was to strip it of much of the abstruse verbiage with which many college professors had clothed it and then the principles underlying the everyday life of a student could be taught. Certainly, aside from civics, no subject could be more important for our future citizens and it could well be placed in the third year of our high school course as a required subject at the expense of some of the advanced mathematics As a subject for training the reasoning power used in everyday life, it was much better than most of the mathematics with which our students are crammed.

THE PRACTICAL MANAGEMENT OF A HIGH SCHOOL COURSE IN ECONOMICS

SUMMARY OF ADDRESS DELIVERED BY

JOHN L. TILDSLEY

DE WITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY

In 1884 President Eliot wrote: "There can be no pretense that political economy is an easy subject or that it affords no mental discipline. Indeed, it requires such exactness of statement, such accurate weighing of premises and such closeness of reasoning, that many young men of twenty who have been disciplined by the study of Greek and mathematics for six or eight years find that it taxes their utmost powers."

Yet economics with most of you is a discredited subject. In your judgment it is not to be classed with foreign languages, mathematics or natural science as a power-producing study. Many of you will agree with my colleague of the physics department who called it a "hot air subject," and who maintained that the primary qualification required in the student was a glib tongue.

This bad reputation is due to a wrong aim and to wrong methods of teaching, and each of these is due to the selection of the wrong man as teacher. Economics, whether in high school or in college, has labored under the misfortune of being too popular a study. There is no man so ignorant or so inexperienced that he does not feel qualified to discuss economic problems. The man in the street has learned his economics from the newspapers and the popular magazines. He knows of the contents of economics; he understands few of its principles. His son has learned his economics at the dinner table in an atmosphere of discussion, and with this spirit he enters upon the subject in the classroom. The value of no subject in the high school or college curriculum is so largely a matter of the teacher as is the case with economics. When I was a junior in college, I had a course in economics with a teacher who was a famous specialist in another subject. We used as a text Walker's Brief Course in Political Economy, a book now re-

garded as too elementary for a high school course. We listened to lectures, historical and descriptive, which required no thinking on our part. In fact it did not seem to occur to the distinguished teacher that the development of logical thinking was an aim of a course in economics. At the close of that term, I charged up sixty hours to my loss account!

It is but recently that school and college authorities have begun to realize that economics demands in its teacher as thorough a training as does any other study, bar none. It were desirable that even in a high school your teacher of economics had taken his doctorate in that subject. For most high schools, to require such a qualification is impossible. The common practice is to select a man who is interested in social reform and who desires, therefore, to win support for a hobby. Such a man teaches not economics, but the single tax, municipal ownership, socialism, or some other of a hundred possible isms.

If you have no trained teacher of economics, do not select an emotional man who is a lover of humanity, but draft a logician, a mathematician, an observer of nature who is also an interested observer of the industrial world about him. If you have no such man, do not attempt to give a course in economics in your school. The want of training in economics is not fatal, the want of a trained mind is. Given a good man without special preparation in economics but with an interest in industrial activities, knowledge of subject matter can be easily obtained. Such a man, before beginning his first recitation, should have read Marshall's Principles of Economics, or at least, Seligman's or Seager's Introduction—preferably all three. Having done this, he will read with profit special books on single subjects. We are familiar with the story of Garfield, who taught geometry by keeping one lesson in advance of his pupils. Such a preparation in economics would prove disastrous. The teacher must have made a complete survey of the subject and have gained a unitary conception of the body of economic principles or else he will find himself with each new topic involved in contradictions. It is difficult for the most thoroughly trained economist to avoid such contradictions, as was shown in the discussions over bi-metallism in 1896. So much for the teacher and his preparation. Next comes the question of aims.

I firmly believe that the primary aim of a high school course in economics should not be the accumulation of information, not the furtherance of social reform, not even the understanding of the industrial world—but first, last and all the time, the aim should be discipline, the development in the pupil of the power to analyze closely and to reason readily. Seek as your first aim discipline; information, interest in social reform and all other desirable ends will follow as by-products of this aim. The peculiar training of economics lies in the resolution of forces; the search for all the contributing causes, the allowance for the unseen at any given time. For example, every stock broker is asking himself at this time, "What will be the effect of the death of President Diaz on certain stocks?" This is an economic problem, and the ability to solve such problems should be the ultimate aim of the teaching of economics. Such a problem would stagger a high school boy when first he enters the economics class, for he then can see only the very apparent; he can measure but one force at a time; he overlooks the unseen but present. His course in economics, if properly carried on, will train him to estimate the resultant of manifold forces.

How is this to be accomplished? What is the method to be followed in our high school study? In the child of high school age, the element of curiosity is too often dormant; the most potent word in the educational vocabulary has been forgotten, the word "Why?" He must not, therefore, be plunged at once into too difficult problems. The most common practice in the high school teaching of economics has been to preface the course in economics proper with a three weeks' introduction to the industrial history of the United States. This is a mistake. Economics deals with a cross-section of industrial society. It deals with things, here and now. Preface your formal course in economics with a brief study of the industrial life of your own locality. Deal with the simple, concrete, and near at hand.

In the High School of Commerce, New York, we gave to our first-year pupils a two-hour course for one term on the "Industries of New York," and we found this fitted them for the later study of the theory of economics. Under present conditions the ordinary high school finds no place for such a course, but part of this work could well be done during the opening weeks of the course in eco-

nomics, which are usually given to the historical introduction. For example, the opening lesson could be devoted to the causes of the commercial and industrial importance of New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, or of whatever town the course is given in, a study of the reason for the existence of certain prominent industries, as clothing; a study of the industries on a given block; the reason why certain industries and callings are largely racial, as delicatessen dealers—Germans; saloon keepers and contractors—Irish; ornamental plasterers—Italian, etc.; a study of racial centres, why they arise and their effect. The number of local economic problems thus within the grasp of the pupil to solve is almost countless.

In this study of concrete local industrial phenomena is found the best basis for the formal study of economics, but although economic principles may be arrived at in the course of such studies, as, for example, the effect of cold storage on market prices, I do not believe that the inductive method is the proper method for secondary work. Though economics should be local and of the present time, yet it should be presented as a body of principles already formulated.

It is needless to say that the lecture method has little place in the secondary school. The study of a systematic book with the recitation following should constitute the bulk of the work. The inexperienced teacher would use to best advantage such a book as Bullock's; a trained teacher may prefer Ely's latest book because of its greater material; if the pupils are above the average in maturity and general ability, Seager can be profitably used. I have often found it desirable to use Bullock and Seager in the same class. These textbooks should be supplemented by a classroom library as large as funds will permit. I have had boys in one class use twenty different books in the preparation of a single lesson. The pupils thus come to realize the various possible points of view and the necessity of forming one's own judgment. We have thus used to advantage books commonly regarded as college books, such as portions of Marshall, Goschen's Foreign Exchange, Clare's A, B, C of Foreign Exchange, Bastable's Commerce of Nations, Adams' Public Finance. In fact, there is no authoritative work some part of which will not prove itself readable by the high school boy. In addition to such monographs, there should be in the classroom some

financial and trade papers such as the New York *Journal of Commerce*. We have used to great advantage the annual financial supplements of the papers. When studying money, banking, foreign exchange, prices, it adds vividness to turn directly to the financial columns of the daily papers for the raw material of the discussion.

The study of economics should start with consumption. The teacher must insist from the beginning on accurate definitions and the correct use of terms. A large portion of the crude statements and fallacious reasoning of our press is due to the want of accuracy in the use of terms by the writers. Economics, when properly taught, gives a training in English equal to that of any other subject. In general, take the tables in the book; do not spend too much time in having the pupils make their own tables of family consumption, for the figures are not reliable. Colored tables and curves are beautiful, but be sure they are not mere finger work. Ever hold in mind that your aim is not to make clerks, not even statisticians, but accurate reasoners. Show the importance to the business man of the study of consumption. Shower the pupils with problem questions, as, What was the effect on the prices of rubber coats of the development of the automobile? What will be the effect of a succession of poor corn crops on the price of eggs? What would be the effect on industry if every family in the country should seek to double its annual savings? Make all applications of principles, all statement of problems, within the experience of the boy. Expose the current fallacies of consumption. Review frequently by written tests definitions and statements of laws. In no subject is written work more needed. It is a corrective to careless use of terms and loose thinking. Discussions and debates enliven; too often they encourage mere glibness.

Go on to production; first study the book; then visit a factory; observe, ask questions, report. You will be surprised to learn how few pupils can ask intelligent and pertinent questions. You will need at first to tell the pupils what they are to look for, what questions each is to ask. Visits are only profitable as they are planned beforehand by the teacher. The proprietor or employer who acts as guide rarely knows what operations or facts are of most value to the visiting class.

For the study of production, the census reports are most valuable. Study the industries of your own city from these reports; account for the existence of each; make tables showing output, capital, wages paid, number of workers, male and female; work out the varying relations between these and find the explanation. Here the field is unlimited.

Taking up value and price, endeavor to reproduce in the classroom the conditions from which our principles are derived. For example, to arrive at the law of market price, hold an auction in the room of apples or horses, and with the aid of the blackboard show clearly the marginal pair and the resulting price. Obtain from the newspaper the actual market price on a given day and have the pupils explain why kerosene oil sells for 14 cents a gallon, strawberries for 38 cents a box, opera tickets at $5, a hair cut at 25 cents, cotton cloth at 7 cents a yard, car rides at 5 cents. Normal value is usually a stumbling block to the pupils. Demonstrate the law on the blackboard and then fix by means of problem questions, as, What is the normal value of a sirloin steak? Show by a diagram the difference between market value, normal value and average value. No pupil should be allowed to proceed from this point until he has mastered the concept of the marginal producer and his relation to normal value. The blackboard should be covered with illustration after illustration until every boy has his feet firmly planted on this foundation stone of economics A few great laws of economics thoroughly understood by the boy will do more for his mental growth and resulting ability to meet the problems of life than years spent on social questions without a foundation of economic theory.

My plea, then, is for the bringing in of the concrete business or social problem as a means of arousing interest in the law and as a means of testing the understanding of the law, not as an end in itself. For example, I would study the theory and functions of credit and then I would give the boys such a concrete problem, as, Would you fill this order for A. Eckman, Remington, Ind.—Boots and shoes to the amount of $1,000 at 90 days? This would necessitate the consulting of Bradstreet or Dun, and at this time the work of such agencies could be brought home to the boys.

It is unnecessary to take up in detail the various topics in economics to illustrate the thesis of this paper; that power is obtained,

first, by the study of the theory; then by the testing of the pupils' grasp of the theory by means of problem questions. I submit some of the questions which I have used with my classes:

(1) Why is it more risky now than 200 years ago to put a large proportion of the capital of a country in a fixed form?

(2) Why will there be in the future an increasing use of water power?

(3) Give the wages in ten occupations in New York City and the reason for the relative ratios.

(4) Would you prefer to pay $4 a day to one man or $2 a day to two men, for doing a given amount of work, and why?

(5) If the theory is true that the rate of wages is determined by the efficiency of the marginal laborer, of what use are trade unions?

(6) Show the effect of the building of the Subway on rents in New York.

(7) What is the effect of the use of steel construction on rents?

(8) Show how the value of the cigar store property on the northwest corner of Thirty-fourth street and Broadway is determined.

(9) What would be the effect, on exchange on London in Paris, of a bond issue of $50,000,000 of the Pennsylvania Railroad floated in Paris?

(10) How would the rate of London exchange in New York be affected by a successful boycott of Brazilian coffee in the United States? How by a failure of our cotton crop?

When a boy, as a result of his training in economics, is able to answer such questions as these definitely and promptly, he has proved the value of the systematic study of economic theory, for only through such study and such testing can such power, in my judgment, be gained.

We then return to our original thesis, that the personality of the teacher is the great element in the practical conduct of a course in economics. No man is fitted to conduct the course who is unable to see the various sides of a question, who is unable to separate the one constant element from a host of variables, who is unable to bring into the classroom all that he knows of the outside world and focus it on the point that is being discussed.

DISCUSSION

PERCY L. KAYE, Head of the Department of History, Baltimore City College:

I shall discuss this subject from the point of view of the high school which is not distinctly a business or industrial school but which offers a commercial or business course along with several other courses of study. In order to bring the situation in such a school clearly to mind, let me begin by describing the course in economics in the Baltimore City College. The course is elective, two hours per week for one year, and is open to members of the fourth year class. While the study is intended largely if not mainly for commercial students, and is in fact grouped with the commercial subjects, it is not required of commercial students and is elected by about as large a proportion of non-commercial as of commercial students. The class is divided into two sections of about thirty members each and thus comprises a little less than one-half of the fourth year students.

Now, it appears to me that there are two considerations to be kept in mind in discussing the subject of economics in such a school: first, of what value is such a study to high school students and what should be the primary aim in teaching it? Second, what are the practical difficulties confronting the teacher of economics in the high school and how may these difficulties be overcome?

The chief value of the study of economics, as I see it, is to be found in the fact that it deals with topics about which the young citizen ought to know something in order that he may properly perform his duties as a citizen. The high school does not fulfill its purpose as a *public* school if it does not do all in its power to train the rising generation in the principles of good citizenship. That is largely the purpose of the study of history in the high school; it is the reason for the study of civil government; and I think it should be the chief aim of the study of economics. More and more in the present age are governmental problems economic in character. A glance at the platforms of the political parties in national, state and local elections reveals the extent to which this is true. The young man who has completed the high school course in economics should have a good elementary knowledge of the economic questions of the day, not of facts and figures so much as principles; he should have been led to discuss and to hear the discussion of those principles, and to think accurately and clearly with

respect to their application to the solution of current economic problems. He should also be induced to read newspapers and magazines for other than the sporting or society news and to think discriminatingly about what he reads.

Professor Tildsley has emphasized the disciplinary idea as the chief aim of economics. I do not know that I can subscribe entirely to this view, although I realize that the difference is mainly as to *what* is to be taught rather than *how* it is taught. I think the economics for the high school should be mainly historical and descriptive economics, whereas the disciplinary aim, if kept uppermost, would be best attained by stressing economic theory. In either case the method is much the same, clear thinking and accurate expression—the eternal *why* and *how* must be ever on the lips of the instructor. I do not think the high school pupil is capable of doing much with economic theory; he cannot go far enough into the subject nor has his mind a sufficient grasp of abstract realities to enable him to theorize. He can understand the principles of the theory of normal value or international trade if presented in a concrete descriptive way, but when you try to lead him to draw a general conclusion based on the facts, or to prove the general statement by citation of facts, much time is wasted and not more than one in ten will in the end grasp and understand the point. Emphasis should be placed on the principles of the industrial organization of society with respect both to its present status and its historical evolution, so that when he comes face to face with current problems of an economic character he will have a basis of knowledge and experience and an acquired habit of thought to apply in reaching a sound judgment.

As to the second consideration I have mentioned, the practical administration of the course in economics, there are three points to be noted; first, how shall we find a place for economics in the high school curriculum? Second, how can textbooks be better adapted to the needs of high school students? Third, what method or methods of instruction are conducive to the best results?

Cannot something be done to more adequately co-ordinate economics with other high school subjects? As an elective in the Baltimore City College it stands almost wholly unrelated to any other study. It is given in the history department but is grouped with the commercial studies and is not required in any course. It is taken up by many for serious study; by many others out of curiosity; and is virtually thrust upon still others in order to fill out their schedules. I wonder to what extent this is true of other high schools having the wide-open elective system. My experiences with such a group of students have not always been happy. Should economics be turned over to the commercial department and re-

quired of all students in that department? Or should it be considered as a training course for citizenship and required of all students in the fourth year? Shall a certain amount of history be required as a preliminary, or shall the study of economics be taken up without regard to previous training? These are questions which ought to receive deliberate consideration on the part of those responsible for the organization of the high school curriculum. I am of the opinion that either United States history and civics or economics ought to be required of all students who complete the high school course. If economics were required of all commercial students and the history civics course of all students in the fourth year, and each study should be open as an elective to those students taking the other as a required study the question might be solved in that way. Professor Tildsley's suggestion that economics be substituted for mathematics in the fourth year is a good one but I fear it would meet with considerable opposition from the mathematicians.

As to textbooks, they are too theoretical and abstract and not sufficiently historical and descriptive. The purely theoretic part should be minimized and stated clearly and the emphasis placed on the descriptive phase of the subject. Historical introductions are almost useless as they are seldom referred to in the development of the subject later on. In the place of this the whole subject should be treated historically so as to show the development and illuminate the present organization of industry. The books should abound in concrete illustrations and examples taken from every-day life. Numerous syllabi have been prepared to standardize the subjects of history and civics. I think it is time that something should be done to set a standard for the writers and publishers of textbooks on economics for high schools.

The method of teaching should be adapted to arouse interest on the part of the student and encourage him to discuss and explain the subject under consideration. This must be done in such a way as to make him think before he speaks. High school pupils are apt to be blasé and are prone to deal in glittering generalities if the subject is one about which they have heard some older person talking. Others are passive and willing to take the statement of the book or the teacher without question. A persistent quiz is the best corrective for these conditions. Clearness and accuracy of statement should be insisted on and reasons required for all conclusions. I find that it is often difficult to get students to express themselves freely. To correct this I have oral reports from assigned readings and the topic then made the subject for a general discussion. Each year several debates are held in the classroom on subjects of popular interest. On these occasions the students are

aroused to investigate the subject independently and collect material from standard journals which they are then taught to systematize and to see the necessity of discriminating between the good and the bad. This I think is one of the most valuable results to be attained in the study of economics, namely, to develop the habit of good reading and clear thinking on a wide range of topics which have a direct bearing on the social welfare of the community.

E. W. Wilson, Principal Central High School, Washington D. C.:

Dr. Wilson called attention to a tendency in teaching economics, to talk "over the heads of pupils." Many high school teachers were just out of college and were filled with the "refinements" of economic theory. He believed in theory, but it must be theory put upon a high school basis.

HISTORIC WASHINGTON

ELLEN SPENCER MUSSEY

DEAN, WASHINGTON COLLEGE OF LAW, AND VICE-PRESIDENT BOARD OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The District of Columbia was established under section 8 of the Constitution, giving the Federal Government exclusive jurisdiction over ten square miles for the seat of government. Maryland, in December, 1788, offered to cede ten miles square. Virginia followed with like cession December, 1789, and July 16, 1790, the act was signed by President Washington establishing the District on the Potomac, between the Eastern Branch and the Connogochegue.

Three Commissioners were appointed by the President to survey and define and limit the required territory, with power to purchase or accept such quantity of land as the President thought proper for the use of the United States, and with power also to provide "suitable buildings for the accommodation of Congress and of the President, and for the public offices of the Government."

The Commissioners were appointed in January, 1791, and proceeded to execute the duties imposed upon them by law. Major Pierre Charles L'Enfant was employed to prepare plans for the Federal Capitol and to him is due the plan upon which the City of Washington has been constructed. The Federal district was christened by the Commissioners, who wrote to Major L'Enfant on September 9, 1791: "We have agreed that the Federal District shall be called 'The Territory of Columbia,' and the Federal city the 'City of Washington.'"

On the first Monday in December, 1800, the seat of government was to be removed to the District. The Commissioners were Thomas Johnson, of Maryland; Daniel Carroll, of Maryland, and David Stuart, of Virginia. Washington himself, with some friends, made a preliminary survey above tide water, and followed the

building of the Capital City closely. Major L'Enfant's first map was issued in 1791.

The sixteen original owners of the land sought for streets and squares and public reservations, (of whom Daniel Burns, owner of the White House site and land south, was the most intractable) agreed together to give title, no payment to be made them for land used as streets, but £25 per acre to be paid for all other land. The original intention to build with money received from sale of lots was early abandoned and Congress appropriated money to be spent by Washington in completing the building, both Maryland and Virginia assisting.

The three Commissioners, at the suggestion of Washington and Jefferson, advertised for competitive plans for the Capitol, offering a reward of a city lot and $500, or a medal of that value, for the best plan. One Stephen Hallet's plans were favored, but in 1792 Dr. William Thornton, a West Indian, offered to submit plans. These were accepted and the work begun according to them.

> "By the laws of Maryland and Virginia which ceded "the federal territory to the United States, provision was "made that the laws of these States should remain in force "in the parts of the territory ceded by them respectively, "until Congress should provide for the government of the "federal district. By the Act of July 16, 1790, accepting "the offers of Maryland and Virginia and locating the seat "of the Federal Government on the Potomac, Congress pro-"vided that the operation of the laws of the State within "such district shall not be affected by this acceptance, until "the time fixed for the removal of the government thereto, "and until Congress shall otherwise by law provide. By "these legal provisions not only did the laws already enacted "by Maryland and Virginia continue to be in force in the two "parts of the Federal District, but new laws might be passed "by the Legislature of Virginia for the part of the District "of Columbia lying west of the Potomac, and new laws "might be passed by the Legislature of Maryland for the "part of the District of Columbia lying east of the Potomac "River. For more than ten years the Legislatures of Mary-"land and Virginia had power to enact laws of the District

" of Columbia, and this power was made use of by both " States. The only authority immediately assumed by the " United States over the Federal District was that conferred " upon the three Commissioners to acquire lands on the east- " ern side of the Potomac and to provide buildings for the " accommodation of the Government of the United States.

" The territory ceded by Maryland to the Government " of the United States formed a part of the Montgomery " and Prince George's counties, and contained the incorpor- " ated town of Georgetown. Each of the counties was gov- " erned by a ' Levy Court,' which, after 1798 was composed " of seven Justices of the Peace, annually appointed by the " Governor and Council of the State. The Levy Court ad- " justed the expenses of the county, including an allowance " for the poor and for public roads, and imposed taxes upon " the county to pay such expenses; maintained necessary " public buildings and bridges; appointed constables and " overseers of roads. This Levy Court was abolished in " 1871."

Dodd's Government of the District of Columbia.

One of the earliest acts of Congress relating to the District of Columbia, that of February 27, 1801, provided that the laws of Virginia should remain in force in that part of the District of Columbia ceded by Virginia, and that the laws of Maryland should remain in force in that part of the District of Columbia ceded by Maryland; and erected the District into counties, one comprising the territory lying east of the Potomac to be called the County of Washington; the other, lying west of the Potomac, to be called the County of Alexandria.

The United States Government did not find occasion to use for public buildings or for other similar purposes the territory ceded by Virginia to form a part of the District of Columbia. The people of the town and county of Alexandria were from the first dissatisfied because of their failure to reap any advantages from their inclusion within the Federal District. No benefits accrued to them from the connection, but on the other hand, they were subject to the hardship of disfranchisement, except with reference to their

local affairs, and, because Congress had not time to give to a systematic revision of their laws, they were still subject to the somewhat antiquated laws which were in force in Virginia in 1800. In the early part of 1846 petitions were presented to Congress asking that the town and County of Alexandria be retroceded to Virginia. At the same time petitions were presented to the General Assembly of the State of Virginia, which immediately passed an act offering to accept the territory if Congress should retrocede it to Virginia. The Congressional Committee to whom the petitions were referred, reported favorably on them, and Congress by an Act of July 9, 1846, retroceded to Virginia all that part of the District of Columbia lying west of the Potomac River. A majority of the people voted in favor of retrocession, and by a presidential proclamation of September 7, 1846, the town and County of Alexandria ceased to form a part of the District of Columbia.

The rapid growth of the city began with the Civil War, and with the war came problems with which the municipal government found it impossible to cope.

The impotence of the local government under the new conditions first appeared clearly in the service of the police. Although the police control of the Federal armies stationed in or near Washington was, during the Civil War, largely exercised by military patrols, Congress thought it necessary in August, 1861, to combine the cities of Washington and Georgetown, and the County of Washington, into a "Metropolitan Police District." Five Commissioners of Police, appointed by the President of the United States, for a term of three years, together with the mayors of Georgetown and Washington, formed a Board of Police Commissioners, to which was given entire control of the police force of the District of Columbia.

One of the most important changes made by Congress in the government of the several municipal corporations of the District of Columbia was that effected by an Act of January 8, 1867, which extended the right of suffrage to male persons of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, born or naturalized in the United States, who had been residents of the District of Columbia for one year, without any distinction on account of color or race. During and immediately after the Civil War, Washington had served as a city

of refuge for negroes from all parts of the South; a large proportion of this colored population was without means of support, and was dependent upon public charity. The war had also attracted to Washington a large number of whites who were either a charge upon the public or an addition to the criminal classes. These conditions made local government more difficult, and the difficulties were now augmented by the abolition of property and race qualifications for voting. The first municipal election of Washington in which negroes voted was that of 1868.

In the early part of 1870 a movement began in favor of establishing a centralized government for the District of Columbia. On February 21, 1871, the separate governments of the cities of Washington and Georgetown and of the County of Washington were abolished, and a government for the District established, similar in organization to that provided for the territories of the United States.

By this act the executive power was vested in a Governor, appointed by the President of the United States, with the approval of the Senate, for a term of four years. The Governor was given a veto upon all legislation, such veto to be overcome by the votes of two-thirds of all the members of the council and house of delegates. He was empowered to commission all officers appointed or elected to offices of the District government and to see that the laws should be faithfully executed. A secretary, appointed for the same term and in the same manner as the Governor, was to take the place of that officer in case of the latter's absence or disability. Legislative power was vested in a legislative assembly composed of a council and a house of delegates.

In 1871 the District was solvent, in 1874 its treasury was empty, its resources pledged for work yet to be done, and there was no means by which it could extricate itself from its financial difficulties.

The District of Columbia became bankrupt under this management and the Committee which had investigated its affairs recommended what was practically the appointment of receivers to conduct its affairs and to settle its financial obligations. The bill submitted for this purpose by the Select Committee was adopted by both houses of Congress and became a law on June 20, 1874.

The existing government was abolished. Governor, secretary, legislative assembly and board of public works disappeared; the delegate in the House of Representatives was withdrawn, but the delegate then serving was permitted to continue for the term for which he had been elected. Three Commissioners, appointed by the President of the United States, were vested with all powers formerly exercised by the Governor and Board of Public Works, but were strictly forbidden to make any contract or incur any obligation "other than such contracts and obligations as may be necessary to the faithful administration of the valid laws enacted for the government of said District, to the execution of existing legal obligations and contracts, and to the protection and preservation of improvements existing or commenced and not completed at the time of the passage of this act." The Commissioners were further forbidden to anticipate taxes in any way. An officer of the Engineer Corps of the United States Army was detailed by the President of the United States to have control of all public improvements and in 1878 this became the permanent form of government.

Taxation

The Federal Government owning in fee fifty-five per cent. of the area of the District used in streets, parks and public buildings, and the interest of the Nation being of paramount importance, it was agreed that the Federal Government should pay one-half of all future expenses of maintenance and improvements.

The Capitol

The Capitol fronts east, and stands on a plateau eighty-eight feet above the level of the Potomac.

The southeast cornerstone of the original building was laid on the 18th of September, 1793, by President Washington, with Masonic ceremonies. The original designs were prepared by Dr. William Thornton, and the work was done under the direction of Stephen H. Hallet, James Hoban, George Hadfield and B. H. Latrobe, architects. The north wing was ready for the session of Congress November 17, 1800, and the south wing was completed in 1811, with a wooden passageway connecting them. The Rotunda

was under construction and foundations were laid for a south wing where temporary quarters were provided for the House. On the 24th of August, 1814, the interior of both wings, as well as the wooden parts, was destroyed by fire, set by the British. The damage to the building was immediately repaired. In 1818 the central portion of the building was commenced, under the architectural superintendence of Charles Bulfinch, and the original building was finally completed in 1827.

The cornerstone of the extensions was laid on the 4th of July, 1851, by President Fillmore, Daniel Webster officiating as orator. The extensions were first occupied for legislative purposes January 4, 1859.

The dome of the original central building was constructed of wood, covered with copper. This was replaced in 1856 by the present structure of cast iron. The Statue of Liberty crowning the dome (Sculptor Crawford) was put in place December 2, 1863, and it is said that the headdress of Liberty was designed by Jefferson Davis. As the statue slowly ascended the exterior of the dome gun after gun rang out from the successive forts encircling the city; when it reached the summit (and joined its heretofore beheaded body) all the artillery of the hills saluted again, and the flags were dipped on every ship in the harbor.

The Rotunda is 97 feet 6 inches in diameter, and its height from the floor to the top of the canopy is 180 feet 3 inches.

The room now occupied by the Supreme Court was, until 1859, occupied as the Senate Chamber. Previous to that time the Court occupied the room immediately beneath, now used as a law library, and Statuary Hall was the old House of Representatives.

The Library of Congress was in the west front of the central portion of the Capitol until it was removed to the beautiful Congressional Library Building in 1897. The old library was entirely destroyed by fire in 1814, when the Capitol was fired by the British.

The interior of the Capitol is especially interesting and unique. (Among the objects of interest is the design of the pillars at the entrance to the Law Library, the leaves and ears of American corn being used.) The carving and sculpturing were done by Italians under direction of Giovanni Andrei, who came to America in 1806

and died in 1822. The fresco in the Rotunda was by modern Italian artists.

Of the paintings in the Rotunda four are the work of John Trumbull, a former Revolutionary soldier. He received $32,000 for "The Declaration of Independence," "Surrender of Burgoyne," "Surrender of Cornwallis," "Resignation of General Washington."

Modern innovations, such as elevators, electric lights, electric bells were introduced in the '70's and '80's and the bells in 1891.

There has been much discussion as to the frontage of the Capitol. The east was undoubtedly originally intended as the front proper, and there the inaugural ceremonies are always held. But, at the same time, considering the city as a whole, the west front is the east end of the grand avenue up and down which march our great processions, and at the west end of which it was originally intended the White House should be visible.

In 1874 the forty-six acres surrounding the Capitol were laid out by Frederick Law Olmsted, and all Washington, including the children, used on Easter Monday to roll eggs down its turfed terraces, to the destruction of every blade of grass.

A Commission was later formed to change the western front by building the present marble terraces, giving the needed impression of height, and adding many much needed committee accommodations in these basement rooms. The offices under the old terraces were used during the Civil War as bakeries, and it is said that 12,000 loaves of bread were made there daily.

It is estimated that the building has cost up to the year 1900 $15,000,000, and now it is flanked on the north and on the south by imposing independent marble structures, used solely for committee rooms and offices of the Senators and Members of the House of Representatives.

Directly east of the Capitol is our magnificent Congressional Library. The Supreme Court is still very inadequately housed in the Capitol, but it is hoped that the square directly north of the Congressional Library will be purchased by the Government and a suitable Temple of Justice be erected thereon.

It is indeed to be regretted that our Supreme Court, the august body to which appeal is made from the highest courts of forty-six sovereign States, as well as the Appellate Federal Courts, has for

so many years been obliged to deliberate in a crowded, badly lighted and badly ventilated chamber.

The dignified statue of Chief Justice Marshall at the foot of the marble steps on the western terraces is especially to be commended. To him, more than to any other man, we owe the stability of our judicial system and the permanence and breadth of our Constitution.

While the Capitol was being made habitable, after the firing by the British, Congress was housed in a building put up by popular subscription at the corner of First and A streets, N. E., fronting the Capitol grounds. This building is still standing and was during the Civil War used as a prison, being called the old Capitol prison.

The White House

The corner-stone of the White House was laid on October 13, 1792, eleven months before that of the Capitol.

While in the original plan of Washington and L'Enfant, it was intended that the Capitol should crown the eastern hill they also planned that the President's house, with its principal garden, should face south on the Potomac with a fine view of the hills of Maryland and Virginia.

Pennsylvania avenue and the Mall were the connecting links between the Executive and legislative branches of the Government. In those days the ground was low and nothing but a morass, and all that region was repeatedly under water in the spring of the year up to the year 1900.

We have a picture which shows the White House as it looked in 1811, when Washington Irving visited it. The Ionic portico which is such a feature of the north front at the present day, was not then built, but was added upon its restoration after the fire in 1814. The basement colonnade to the east was torn down by Jackson and is now restored to conform to the original plans. For many years the west colonnade was surmounted by a conservatory, recently removed, and at its western extremity, facing the War and Navy Building, is the President's Office, a one-story structure. This picture also shows the high-hip roof destroyed by the fire, which on

restoration was lowered, so that it cannot be seen projecting above the colonnade coping of the exterior wall.

The White House was first occupied as the Executive Mansion by President John Adams and his brilliant wife, Abigail, who has told in her own charming way of the unfinished condition of the mansion when the East Room was used as a drying room on Mondays.

Thomas Jefferson with his ideas of simplicity came next, with his daughter as hostess.

It was left to President Madison and his charming wife, Dolly, to really entertain in this mansion. In 1816 they inaugurated the custom of the New Year Reception, which has been observed with democratic simplicity ever since.

Many are the stories of "Dolly," including that of her presence of mind in cutting the Stuart portrait of Washington from the frame when warning was given of the approach of the British in 1814.

The White House was burned by the British at that time and President and Mrs. Madison lived for a time in the famous Tayloe-Octagon house, corner New York avenue and Eighteenth street. The treaty of Ghent, which finally established peace with Great Britain, was signed there. Later President and Mrs. Madison lived in the house corner Pennsylvania avenue and Nineteenth street, and New Year's receptions were held there in 1815 and 1816.

The White House was in order for President Monroe's first New Year's reception in 1818, and since that date, each recurring New Year has seen the President keeping open house to officials and private citizens alike. This ceremony has for many years been followed by card receptions in honor of the Judiciary, Diplomatic Corps, Army and Navy and Congress. The card reception is, however, a modern innovation.

On Easter Monday the White House grounds on the south are open to the children and their parents for egg-rolling, with the Marine Band to furnish music. This is a charming Washington custom and many generations of Presidents have taken holiday from State cares to enjoy it in token of the Resurrection of Life.

We can picture the formal festivities in the White House, but we may also picture the many other individual incidents of home

life. It is said that an admirer of President Jackson sent him an enormous cheese, too large for family consumption, so he placed it in the vestibule for every one to take away a slice.

Mrs. Grant was the first mistress of the White House to make the mansion ready for its new mistress, the wife of the succeeding President. Every part of the building was cleaned and in perfect order. Even the lace hangings were carefully darned and renovated. Luncheon was ready for President and Mrs. Hayes and friends, and dinner and breakfast were both ordered and provided for. Mrs. Hayes was very appreciative of this courtesy and thoughtfulness.

The Inaugural Ball, the first social function of each new administration, is a subscription affair and takes place on the evening of March 4th. That of President William Henry Harrison, in 1841, was held in the old Canterbury Theatre, on Louisiana avenue. Those of Presidents Van Buren, Polk, Taylor, Pierce and Buchanan were held in Carusi's Hall, on Eleventh street, just south of Pennsylvania avenue. President Lincoln's first ball was held in a barracks on Judiciary Square, and his second ball in the model room of the United States Patent Office. General Grant's first ball was held in the north wing of the Treasury Building, and on that occasion the historic white hat of Horace Greeley was lost; and his second ball in a temporary building in Judiciary Square on a bitter cold night. President Hayes had no ball, as the decision of the Electoral Commission was given too late to admit of elaborate preparations. President Garfield's ball was held in the National Museum before the exhibits were moved in. All of the Inaugural balls since then have been held in the Pension Office.

Our Presidents have all been regular attendants at church. John Quincy Adams and President Taft, both Unitarians; Presidents Jackson, Fillmore, Harrison, Buchanan, Lincoln, and Johnson, were Presbyterians, and attended church at the New York Avenue Church, corner Thirteenth street; President Lincoln's pew is still preserved. Presidents Van Buren and Arthur were Episcopalians, and attended old St. John's at corner of Sixteenth and H streets, just across Lafayette Square from the White House. President Jefferson was an Episcopalian, but attended church at old Christ Church, in Georgetown. President Cleveland and President Harrison were both Presbyterians, and the former, with his bride,

attended the First Presbyterian Church, on John Marshall Place, when the famous Talmage discoursed there. President Harrison was accustomed to walk out Eighteenth street to the Church of the Covenant. Presidents Grant, Hayes, and McKinley were all Methodists, and both Grant and McKinley attended the Metropolitan Methodist Church on John Marshall Place, famous for its full chime of bells. Mr. and Mrs. Hayes were regular attendants at Old Foundry Church, which stood then on the corner of Fourteenth and G streets, N. W. President Garfield belonged to the Christian Church, in which he was at one time a preacher. He was accustomed to take his little mother on his arm and walk out to the church of that faith on Vermont avenue. President Roosevelt belonged to the Dutch Reformed Church, and worshipped at the little church on the corner of Fifteenth and O streets, built during his administration. Mrs. Roosevelt and the family usually attended St. John's Church, of which she was a member.

The Bells of Washington

According to a recent article in the "Evening Star," the bell at St. John's, corner of Sixteenth and H streets, had been designated as the one to give warning in case the Confederate army should approach, in conjunction with a cannon to be discharged in front of General Scott's headquarters on Sixteenth street.

According to the traditions among the older inhabitants in Washington, the bell at old St. Matthew's, corner of Fifteenth and H streets, now unhappily demolished, did ring the tidings of the nearest approach of the Confederate troops to the Capital City on the south.

The bell of St. John's was presented to the church by President Monroe, and installed November, 1822, having been cast at the foundry near Boston owned by Paul Revere, of midnight riding fame. It is said to be the first bell in use in Washington to call together a Christian congregation, and has tolled on many occasions, such as the killing of Secretary of War, Mr. Upsher; the Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Gilmer, and the funerals of several Cabinet officers.

The first bell to be installed in the city, but not permanently used, was that of All Souls' Unitarian Chapel, on the corner of Sixth and D streets. This also was cast at the Paul Revere foundry, and was purchased by contributions of John Quincy Adams, John C. Calhoun and other distinguished men. This bell was used for all public purposes until 1861, when it was silenced, it was said, for the reason that it was made to toll a death requiem at the passing of John Brown. This bell is said to be in the possession of All Souls' Church, corner Fourteenth and L streets, attended by President Taft.

For over a century—one hundred and eleven years—the great events of our National life have had their setting in Washington. There our Presidents have all been inaugurated, and there all save Roosevelt have taken their solemn oath of office. Congress after Congress has convened, legislated, and passed into history. The great Supreme Court deliberates there. Treaties are made and abrogated there. Ambassadors of all the great nations come and present their credentials and return to their own countries.

At some time in their existence every man and woman of note in our country comes to the National Capital—Clay and Calhoun, Daniel Webster, Choate, and Julia Ward Howe. In Washington the latter wrote some of the greatest verses in the "Battle Hymn of the Republic."

Great armies have marched victorious through the broad streets of the Capital. In May, 1865, the President of the United States, assisted by the members of his Cabinet and all the great Generals and the Governors of the States, passed in review an army of hundreds of thousands in twenty file, with flags flying to martial music. Over fifty thousand spectators looked on as miles upon miles of bronzed men passed on to return to their homes.

Then again, in 1898, during the Spanish War, the hills around Washington became great camps, and the bugle, the drum and the fife were familiar sounds.

Twice have our Presidents received here the fatal blow of the assassin: President Lincoln in Ford's Theatre, in Tenth street, and President Garfield in the old railroad station, corner Sixth and B streets. They and President McKinley, who met his death

at Buffalo, all lay in state in the great rotunda of the Capitol. The Nation did them homage living, and mourned them dead.

The halls of Congress have echoed to the voices of all the great statesmen and orators of over a century, and the Goddess of Liberty looks down on a National Capital which bears eloquent witness to the ever upward progress of a free and independent people.

TREASURER'S REPORT

1910-1911

RECEIPTS

Balance on hand, March 12, 1910	$334.29	
Dues paid during the year	148.00	
		$482.29

DISBURSEMENTS

Expenses of visiting speakers	$10.00	
Expenses of local committees	15.13	
Printing and stationery	26.25	
Postage	35.00	
Clerical help	18.70	
Express, telegram, telephone	4.43	
Exchange	.30	
		109.81
		$372.48

Audited and found correct, March 11, 1911.

(Signed) ELLA V. RICKER,
For Auditing Committee.

CONSTITUTION

Article I. Name and Purpose

This Association shall be known as the "Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland." Its purpose shall be two-fold: first, to advance the study and teaching of history and government through discussion and publication and, secondly, to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students of history.

Article II. Membership

Any one interested in the study or teaching of history in the Middle States and Maryland shall be eligible to membership. Application for membership shall be accepted or rejected by a vote of the Council at its meeting next following the receipt of such application.

Article III. Officers

The officers shall be a president, a vice-president, and a secretary (who shall also act as treasurer), who, with the retiring president and four others, shall constitute a council in which shall be vested the general direction of the affairs of the Association, including the appointment of any necessary committees. The members of the Council, with the exception of the retiring president, who is *ex officio* a member, shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting.

Article IV. Meetings

The annual meetings of the Association shall be held at the time and place annually designated by the Council.

Article V. Annual Dues

The membership fee shall be $1.00, payable at the time of the annual meeting.

Article VI. Amendments

This Constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of those present, notice of the proposed amendment having been given at the call for the meeting.

LIST OF MEMBERS

Abbe, Mrs. Robert,	City History Club,	New York City.
Abel, Annie Heloise,	Goucher College,	Baltimore, Md.
Ale, Ida,	332 West State St.,	Trenton, N. J.
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